CULTURAL RESOURCES SURVEY OF THE WILLIAMSBURG 69kV TRANSMISSION PROJECT, WILLIAMSBURG COUNTY, SOUTH CAROLINA

Chicora Research Contribution 577

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MANAGEMENT SUMMARY

This report provides the results of a cultural resources investigation of a transmission substation lot and corridor in west central Williamsburg County, about 3.5 miles north of the City of Kingstree in the vicinity of Brockington, South Carolina. Andrew P. Hyder and Kyndra Beatty conducted this study, under the supervision of Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work is intended to assist this client comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

Central Electric Power Cooperative intends to use the property for the construction of a new substation lot about 2.2 acres in size adjacent to and south of an existing Santee Electric Cooperative Solar site. Associated is a new alignment for a transmission line from the substation lot running east, northeast, and north to connect with an existing line. This new corridor runs parallel to an existing line for over half of its total distance.

The proposed substation lot is one of the few areas in the survey with soils sufficient drained to possibly support previous occupation. Otherwise, the bulk of the corridor is in wetlands with very poorly drained soils. Some area had standing water at the ground surface, while other shovel tests almost immediately filled with water. The corridor is wooded in scrub vegetation.

For this study, an area of potential effect (APE) 100 feet around the proposed substation and transmission line was assumed. As previously mentioned, the north leg of the transmission line parallels an existing corridor.

Williamsburg County has not received a comprehensive architectural and historical survey, but in immediate vicinity of the project has been extensively developed and our investigations failed to identify any architectural sites within, or adjacent to, the APE.

An investigation of the archaeological site files at the S.C. Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology failed to identify any previously recorded archaeological sites within the project's APE. Three seemingly spatially distinct archaeological sites were recorded south, southwest, and west of the corridor, each with the same SCIAA site number of 38WG165.

The archaeological study of the transmission line incorporated shovel tests at 100-foot intervals along those portions of the corridor where standing water was not present. A total of 25 shovel tests were excavated. At the substation lot a total of 10 shovel tests were excavated.

While a few modern items were recovered, the shovel tests failed to reveal any archaeological sites, almost certainly because of the low, wet nature of the soils. Where soils were better drained, there was no nearby water source.

A survey of public roads within 100 feet of the survey area was conducted in an effort to identify any architectural sites over 50 years old that also retained their integrity. No structures were found.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the project area during construction. Construction crews should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office or to Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No construction should take place in the vicinity of

these late discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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Introduction

This investigation was directed by Dr. Michael Trinkley of Chicora Foundation, Inc. for Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative. The work was conducted to assist Central Electric Power Cooperative to comply with Section 106 of the National Historic Preservation Act and the regulations codified in 36CFR800.

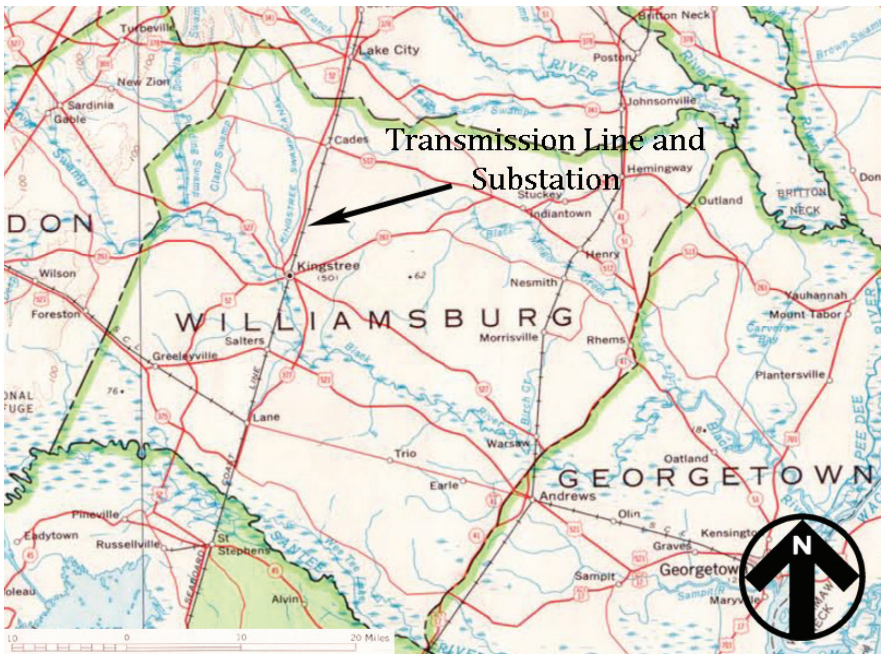

Figure 1. Project vicinity in Williamsburg County (base map is USGS South Carolina 1:500,000).

The project site consists of a proposed substation lot and transmission line in central Williamsburg County, about 6.5 miles north of Kingstree and in the vicinity of industrial developments at Brockington, South Carolina (Figure 1). The substation site is south of a proposed Santee Electric Cooperative Solar site situated west of U.S. 52 and measures about 2.2 acres in size. The associated transmission line runs east from the substation lot, crossing U.S. 52 and a railroad track, then turns northeast, running through several fields and woods. It meets with an existing power line easement, which it parallels to the north for about 0.4 mile. The corridor, about 100 feet in width, is 0.9 mile in length (Figure 2).

The proposed substation lot is an open field. While there are several open fields which the transmission line will cross, most of the corridor is forested in scrub and wetland vegetation. The corridor has been flagged and cleared.

Construction will require additional land alteration, including additional clearing and grading of the tract. There will likely be fill required. The transmission line will likewise require clearing and the installation of poles. Consequently, construction and maintenance of the transmission line may have an impact on historic resources in the project area.

The project will not directly affect any historic structures (since none are located on the substation parcel or transmission line corridor), but the completed facility may detract from the visual integrity of historic properties, creating what some consider discordant surroundings. As a result, this architectural survey uses an area of potential effect (APE) 100 feet around the proposed

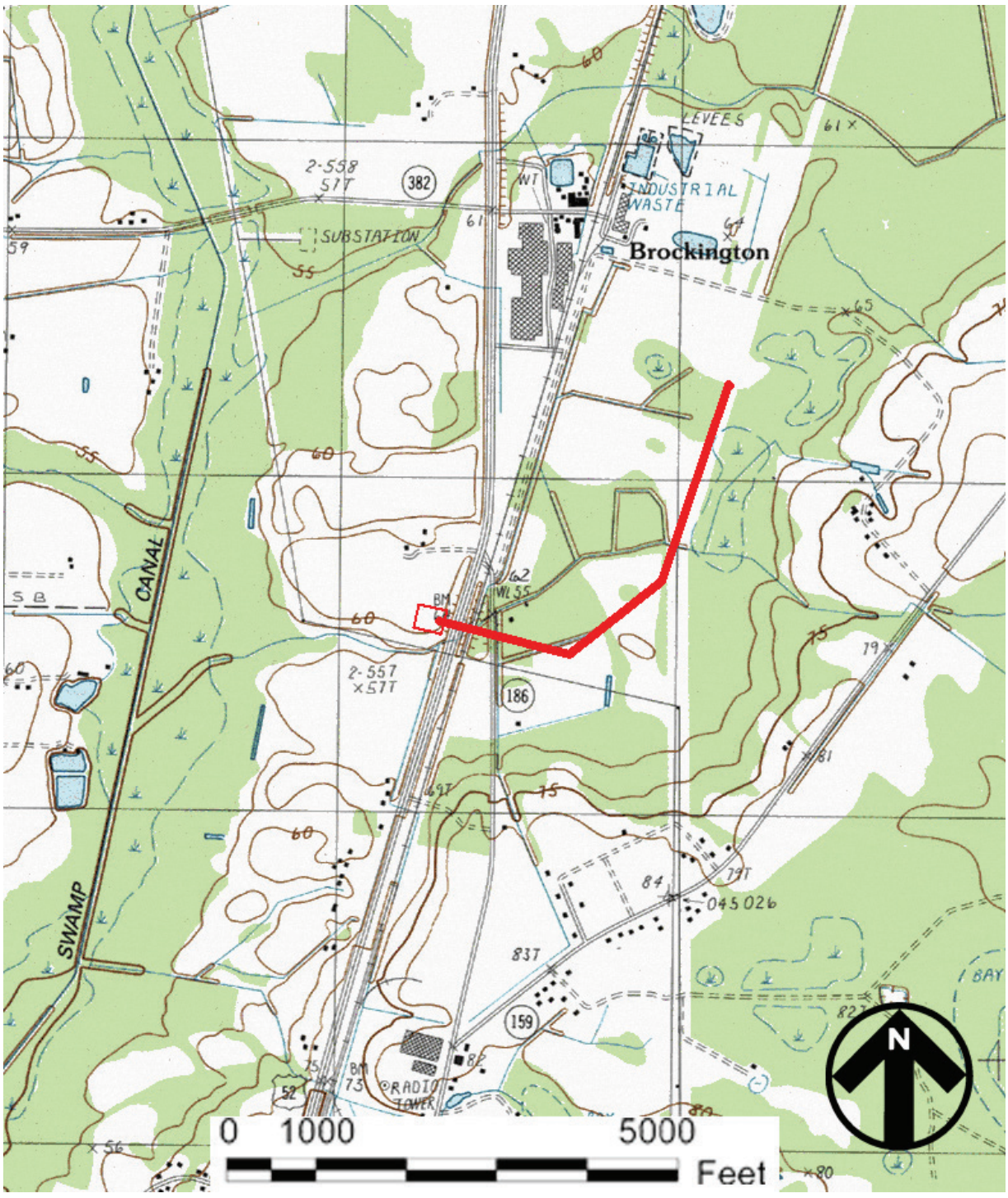

Figure 2. Portion of the 1:24,000 USGS Kingstree 1990 topographic map showing the project site.

lot. This distance was selected since the proposed substation and new corridor are in an area of extensive industrial development and the new power line will parallel an existing corridor or half of its total distance. As a result, we judge visual intrusion to be of little concern.

This study, however, does not consider any future secondary impact of the project, including increased or expanded development of this portion of Williamsburg County.

Figure 3. Proposed substation lot on the opposite side of US 52 and railroad line, from the power line corridor.

We were requested by Mr. Tommy L. Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative to conduct the cultural resource study in mid-January 2017, with the field investigations conducted by Andrew P. Hyder and Kyndra Betty on March 3. The architectural survey and evaluations were conducted at this same time.

These investigations incorporated a review of ArchSite and the site files at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. As a result of that work, no previously recorded archaeological sites were identified within or adjacent to the APE. There were, however, three sites – each identified as 38WG165 situated between 0.1 and 0.5 mile south, southwest, and west of the APE. No architectural survey has been conducted in the area and ArchSite failed to identify any structures in the immediate area.

Archival and historical research was limited to a review of secondary sources available in the Chicora Foundation files and at the South Caroliniana Library.

The archaeological survey identified no archaeological sites within the 2.2-acre parcel or the 0.9-mile long corridor. The architectural survey of the APE, designed to identify any structures over 50 years in age that retain their integrity and that are potentially eligible for the National Register of Historic Places revealed no such structures.

Report production was conducted at Chicora's laboratories in Columbia, South Carolina on March 3-4, 2017. The only photographic materials associated with this project are digital and will be retained by Chicora Foundation.

Environmental Background

Physiography and Geology

The project is situated in central Williamsburg County. Williamsburg itself is in the eastern part of South Carolina, bordered on the east by Georgetown County and separated from Marion County on the northeast by the Great Pee Dee River. It is bordered on the north by Florence County and on the west by Clarendon County. It is separated from Berkeley County on the south by the Santee River.

The topography of the project area consists of nearly level terraces overlooking wetlands and the equally level adjacent flood plains. Elevations in the project area range from a high of about 65 feet above mean sea level (AMSL) in the more upland terraces overlooking the wetlands to a low of about 60 feet AMSL. The corridor itself varies from 60 to 63 feet AMSL. Elevations in the County range from about 8 feet AMSL along some sections of the Black River to about 90 feet in the northwestern part of the county (Ward 1989:1). Overall, the entire region generally slopes towards the Atlantic Ocean.

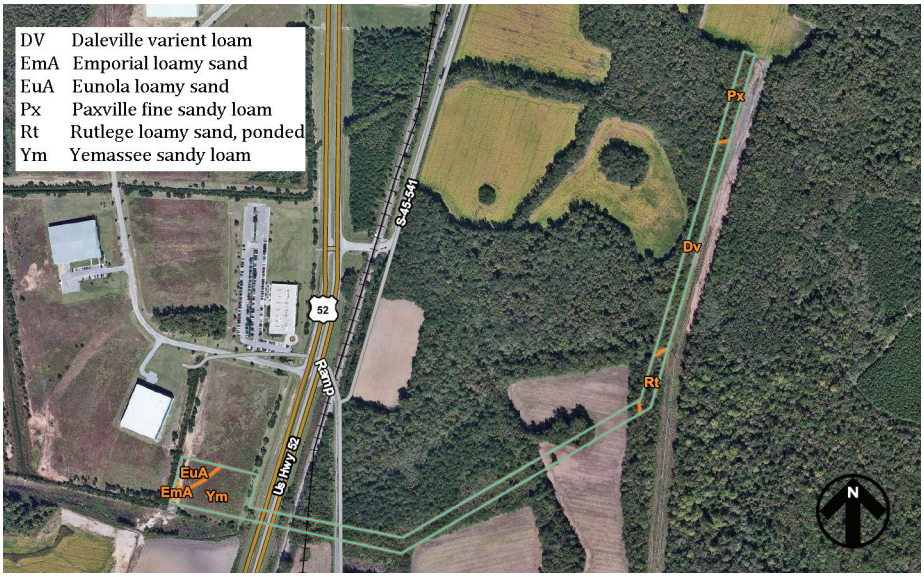

Figure 4. Soils in the project area.

The geology is characteristic of the Coastal Plain. The parent materials of the soils are marine or fluvial deposits that consist of varying amounts of sands, silts, and clays. There is one primary geologic formation in the project area, deposited at different periods during alternating transgression and recession of the ocean: the Penholoway terrace. This terrace contains more upland areas and in Williamsburg County, the Penholoway terrace reaches its maximum width of about 25 miles (Cooke 1936:8).

Soils

In spite of the short corridor length, six soil types are found in project area. The substation includes three soils, including Emporia loamy sand, Eunola loamy sand, and Yemassee sandy loam. The first two are well to moderately well drained and found on the western half of the parcel. The Yemassee soils are somewhat poorly drained and are found on the eastern portion of the tract

(Figure 4).

The corridor also consists of three soils, including Daleville variant loam, which is poorly drained; Paxville fine sand loam, which very poorly drained; and Rutlege loamy sand, which is also very poorly drained. The Rutlege soils dominate the corridor, comprising 61% of it's length.

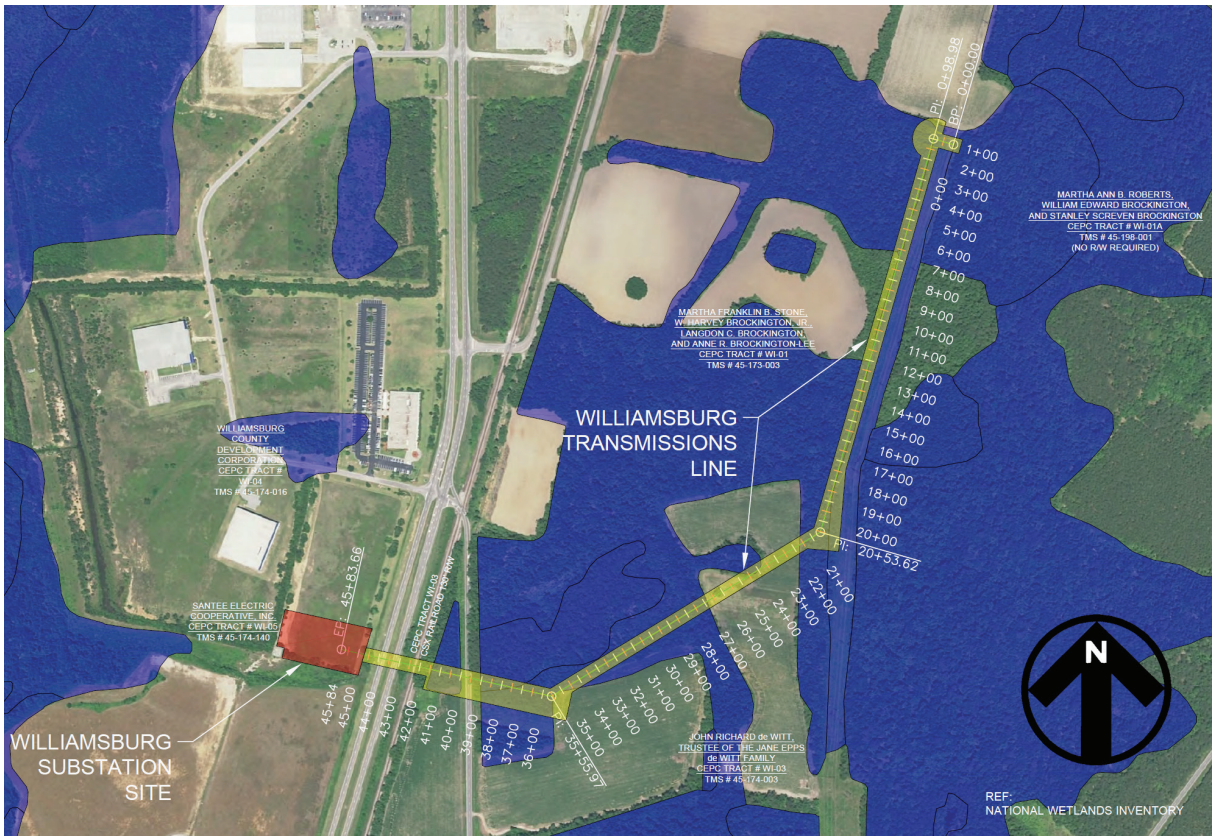

Figure 5. National Wetland Inventory map showing the project. Blue overlay indicates wetlands.

Nearly the entire transmission corridor is in wetlands, based on the National Wetlands Inventory maps (Figure 5) and field observations, with the result that where water wasn't standing on the surface of the soil, it was quickly found in shovel tests (Figure 6).

Mills (1972[1826]) comments that the swampland soils are composed of the "richest soil." He notes for the nearby Marion District that "[while the swamp lands reclaimed and secured from freshets, will bring 50 dollars an acre; and the oak and hickory lands 15 dollars an acre; the pine lands will scarcely sell for 1 dollar per acre" (Mills 1972[1826]:623). The flatlands "are, by comparison, sand barrens; yet occasionally presenting some good timber land" (Mills 1972[1826]:513). And while the uplands were healthy, with summers free of disease, he observed that, "on the rivers, creeks, and flat lands, this district is subject to bilious fevers, and cannot be called healthy" (Mills 1972[1826]:515). The products cultivated during that time were "cotton, corn, wheat, pease, and potatoes" (Mills 1972[1826]:623).

Climate

The general climate of the area is

Figure 6. Wetlands in the project area. Upper photo shows broad areas of standing water. Lower photo shows water in shovel test.

characterized by mild humid conditions. This climate is influenced by the warm Gulf Stream, as well as by the Appalachian Mountains which block the coldest air masses. Other factors include latitude, elevation, distance from the ocean, and location with respect to the average tracts of migratory cyclones. Day to day weather is controlled primarily by the movement of pressure systems across the nation. However, during the summer months there are few complete exchanges of air masses because tropical maritime air persists for extended periods (Ward 1989).

The average annual precipitation in the four county area ranges from 49.6 inches and is unevenly distributed throughout the year, with 31.6 inches occurring from April through October, which is the primary growing season (Ward 1989:112).

The climate, according to Mills (1972[1826]), "taking the whole year round, is pleasant." The annual average temperature in Williamsburg is 75.2°F, and the average monthly temperature ranges from 57.0°F in January to 91.2°F in July. Frozen precipitation occurs only one to three times a year during the winter season. The abundant supply of warm, moist and relatively unstable air produces frequent scattered showers and thunderstorms in the summer. Severe weather usually means violent thunderstorms, tornadoes, and hurricanes. The tropical storm season is in late summer and early fall, although storms may occur as early as May or as late as October (Baldwin 1973). Heavy rains and high winds occur with tropical storms about once every six years. Storms of hurricane intensity are much more infrequent. Notable droughts have occurred twice in modern times – in 1925 and

1954. Typically, a serious drought may occur once every fifty years. Less severe dry periods have occurred more often, normally in late spring or in autumn (Pitts 1974:109).

Floristics

Often described as flatwoods, the project corridor crosses an area often characterized by broad flat areas, which consist of a few low ridges and bay depressions.

There are two major categories of plant communities, based primarily on topographic location, which exist in the project area. The first category consists of upland vegetation. Supported here are a mixture of coniferous and deciduous forests dominated by pines and broadleaf taxa such as upland oaks, sweetgum, hickories, and various understory species. Incorporated may be small upland depressions and drainages, which contain more hydric species.

Portions of the upland area were found to contain pine forest, typically found on soils of low fertility, high acidity, and excessive drainage. Most often these areas have been subjected to extensive disturbance, including repeated logging operations, and the pine represent an early stage of revegetation.

Lowland forests, which account for the second category, are located on the floodplains and swamps of the corridor. These floodplain soils are often forested with bald cypress, gum, sycamore, water hickory, lowland oaks, soft maples, willows, and other herbaceous species. Today, however, we found primarily scrub vegetation, suggesting the lowland forests had been logged.

In the early nineteenth century Mills observed that:

> The long leafed pine is most abundant of the forest trees; next the cypress, various kinds of oak, the hickory, tupelo, &c. Of fruit trees the peach, apple, pear, plum, &c are common . . . . The pine and cypress are made most use for building, but good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick (Mills 1972 [1826]: 624-5).

Mills also observed that the major use of these forest resources was construction, also noting that "good clay is found in various places, suitable to make brick" (Mills 1972[1826]:625). Only lime, largely made of burnt shells, needed to be imported into the area (primarily from neighboring Georgetown). Mills encouraged the residents to make better use of their local "shell limestone" for lime, a suggestion which appears to have made little impact in the local economy (Mills 1972[1826]:628).

Prehistoric and Historic Synthesis

Prehistoric Overview

The Paleoindian period, lasting from 12,000 to 8,000 B.C., is evidenced by basally thinned, side notched projectile points; fluted, lanceolate projectile points; side scrapers; end scrapers; and drills (Coe 1964; Michie 1977; Williams 1965). The Paleoindian occupation, while widespread, does not appear to have been intensive. Artifacts are most frequently found along major river drainages, which Michie interprets to support the concept of an economy "oriented towards the exploitation of now extinct mega fauna" (Michie 1977:124).

Unfortunately, little is known about Paleoindian subsistence strategies, settlement systems, or social organization. Generally, archaeologists agree that the Paleoindian groups were at a band level of society (see Service 1966), were nomadic, and were both hunters and foragers. While population density, based on the isolated finds, is thought to have been low, Walthall suggests that toward the end of the period, "there was an increase in population density and in territoriality and that a number of new resource areas were beginning to be exploited" (Walthall 1980:30).

The Archaic period, which dates from 8000 to 2000 B.C., does not form a sharp break with the Paleoindian period, but is a slow transition characterized by a modern climate and an increase in the diversity of material culture. Associated with this is a reliance on a broad spectrum of small mammals, although the white tailed deer was likely the most commonly exploited mammal. The chronology established by Coe (1964) for the North Carolina Piedmont may be applied with little modification to the South Carolina coastal plain and piedmont. Archaic period assemblages, exemplified by corner notched and broad stem projectile points, are fairly common, perhaps because the swamps and drainages offered especially attractive ecotones.

In the Coastal Plain of the South Carolina there is an increase in the quantity of Early Archaic remains, probably associated with an increase in population and associated increase in the intensity of occupation. While Hardaway and Dalton points are typically found as isolated specimens along riverine environments, remains from the following Palmer phase are not only more common, but are also found in both riverine and interriverine settings. Kirks are likewise common in the coastal plain (Goodyear et al. 1979).

The two primary Middle Archaic phases found in the coastal plain are the Morrow Mountain and Guilford (the Stanly and Halifax complexes identified by Coe are rarely encountered). Our best information on the Middle Woodland comes from sites investigated west of the Appalachian the Little Tennessee River Valley. The work at Middle Archaic river valley sites, with their evidence of a diverse floral and faunal subsistence base, seems to stand in stark contrast to Caldwell's Middle Archaic "Old Quartz Industry" of Georgia and South Carolina, where axes, choppers, and ground and polished stone tools are very rare.

The Late Archaic is characterized by the appearance of large, square stemmed Savannah River projectile points (Coe 1964). These people continued the intensive exploitation of the uplands much like earlier Archaic groups. The bulk of our data for this period, however, comes from work in the Uwharrie region of North Carolina.

The Woodland period begins by definition

with the introduction of fired clay pottery about 2000 B.C. along the South Carolina coast (the introduction of pottery, and hence the beginning of the Woodland period, occurs much later in the Piedmont of South Carolina). It should be noted that many researchers call the period from about 2500 to 1000 B.C. the Late Archaic because of a perceived continuation of the Archaic lifestyle in spite of the manufacture of pottery. Regardless of terminology, the period from 2500 to 1000 B.C. is well documented on the South Carolina coast and is characterized by Stallings (fiber tempered) pottery (see Figure 7 for a synopsis of Woodland phases and pottery designations). The subsistence economy during this early period was based primarily on deer hunting and fishing, with supplemental inclusions of small mammals, birds, reptiles, and shellfish.

Like the Stallings settlement pattern, Thom's Creek sites are found in a variety of environmental zones and take on several forms. Thom's Creek sites are found throughout the South Carolina Coastal Zone, Coastal Plain, and up to the Fall Line. The sites are found into the North Carolina Coastal Plain, but do not appear to extend southward into Georgia.

In the Coastal Plain drainage of the Savannah River there is a change of settlement, and probably subsistence, away from the riverine focus found in the Stallings Phase (Hanson 1982:13; Stoltman 1974:235 236). Thom's Creek sites are more commonly found in the upland areas and lack evidence of intensive shellfish collection. In the Coastal Zone large, irregular shell middens, small, sparse shell middens; and large "shell rings" are found in the Thom's Creek settlement system.

The Deptford phase, which dates from 1100 B.C. to A.D. 600, is best characterized by fine to coarse sandy paste pottery with a check stamped surface treatment. The Deptford settlement pattern involves both coastal and inland sites.

Inland, sites such as 38AK228 W, 38LX5, 38RD60, and 38BM40 indicate the presence of an extensive Deptford occupation on the Fall Line and the Coastal Plain, although sandy, acidic soils preclude statements on the subsistence base (Anderson 1979; Ryan 1972; Trinkley 1980b). These interior or upland Deptford sites, however, are strongly associated with the swamp terrace edge, and this environment is productive not only in nut masts, but also in large mammals such as deer. Perhaps the best data concerning Deptford "base camps" comes from the Lewis West site (38AK228 W), where evidence of abundant food remains, storage pit features, elaborate material culture, mortuary behavior, and craft specialization has been reported (Sassaman et al. 1990:96 98).

Throughout much of the Coastal Zone and Coastal Plain north of Charleston, a somewhat different cultural manifestation is observed, related to the "Northern Tradition" (e.g., Caldwell 1958). This recently identified assemblage has been termed Deep Creek and was first identified from northern North Carolina sites (Phelps 1983). The Deep Creek assemblage is characterized by pottery with medium to coarse sand inclusions and surface treatments of cord marking, fabric impressing, simple stamping, and net impressing. Much of this material has been previously designated as the Middle Woodland "Cape Fear" pottery originally typed by South (1976). The Deep Creek wares date from about 1000 B.C. to A.D. 1 in North Carolina, but may date later in South Carolina. The Deep Creek settlement and subsistence systems are poorly known, but appear to be very similar to those identified with the Deptford phase.

The Deep Creek assemblage strongly resembles Deptford both typologically and temporally. It appears this northern tradition of cord and fabric impressions was introduced and gradually accepted by indigenous South Carolina populations. During this time some groups continued making only the older carved paddle stamped pottery, while others mixed the two styles, and still others (and later all) made exclusively cord and fabric stamped wares.

The Middle Woodland in South Carolina is

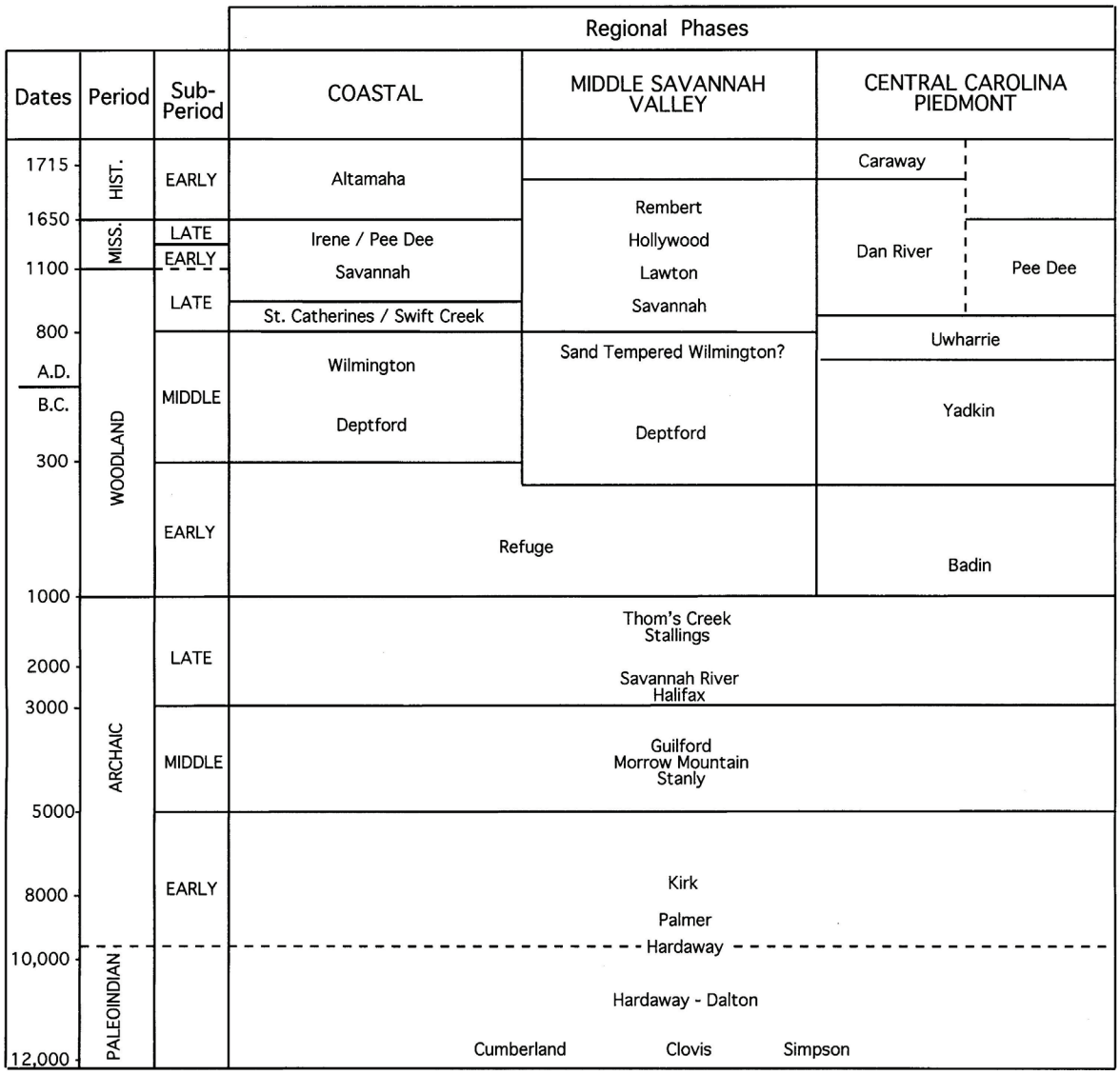

Figure 7. Generalized cultural sequences for South Carolina.

characterized by a pattern of settlement mobility and short term occupation. On the southern coast it is associated with the Wilmington phase, while on the northern coast it is recognized by the presence of Hanover, McClellanville or Santee, and Mount Pleasant assemblages. The best data concerning Middle Woodland Coastal Zone assemblages comes from Phelps' (1983:32 33) work in North Carolina. Associated items include a small variety of the Roanoke Large Triangular points (Coe 1964:110 111), sandstone abraders, shell pendants, polished stone gorgets, celts, and woven marsh mats. Significantly, both primary inhumations and cremations are found.

On the Coastal Plain of South Carolina, researchers are finding evidence of a Middle Woodland Yadkin assemblage, best known from

Coe's work at the Doerschuk site in North Carolina (Coe 1964:25 26). Yadkin pottery is characterized by a crushed quartz temper and cord marked, fabric impressed, and linear check stamped surface treatments. The Yadkin ceramics are associated with medium sized triangular points, although Oliver (1981) suggests that a continuation of the Piedmont Stemmed Tradition to at least A.D. 300 coexisted with this Triangular Tradition. The Yadkin series in South Carolina was first observed by Ward (1978, 1983) from the White's Creek drainage in Marlboro County, South Carolina. Since then, a large Yadkin village has been identified by DePratter at the Dunlap site (38DA66) in Darlington County, South Carolina (Chester DePratter, personal communication 1985) and Blanton et al. (1986) have excavated a small Yadkin site (38SU83) in Sumter County, South Carolina. Research at 38FL249 on the Roche Carolina tract in northern Florence County revealed an assemblage including Badin, Yadkin, and Wilmington wares (Trinkley et al. 1993:85-102). Anderson et al. (1982:299 302) offer additional typological assessments of the Yadkin wares in South Carolina.

Over the years the suggestion that Cape Fear might be replaced by such types as Deep Creek and Mount Pleasant has raised considerable controversy. Taylor, for example, rejects the use of the North Carolina types in favor of those developed by Anderson et al. (1982) from their work at Mattassee Lake in Berkeley County (Taylor 1984:80). Cable (1991) is even less generous in his denouncement of ceramic constructs developed nearly a decade ago, also favoring adoption of the Mattassee Lake typology and chronology. This construct, recognizing five phases (Deptford I - III, McClellanville, and Santee I), uses a type variety system.

Regardless of terminology, these Middle Woodland Coastal Plain and Coastal Zone phases continue the Early Woodland Deptford pattern of mobility. While sites are found all along the coast and inland to the Fall Line, shell midden sites evidence sparse shell and artifacts. Gone are the abundant shell tools, worked bone items, and clay balls. Recent investigations at Coastal Zone sites such as 38BU747 and 38BU1214, however, have provided some evidence of worked bone and shell items at Deptford phase middens (see Trinkley 1990).

In many respects the South Carolina Late Woodland may be characterized as a continuation of previous Middle Woodland cultural assemblages. While outside the Carolinas there were major cultural changes, such as the continued development and elaboration of agriculture, the Carolina groups settled into a lifeway not appreciably different from that observed for the previous 500 to 700 years (cf. Sassaman et al. 1990:14 15). This situation would remain unchanged until the development of the South Appalachian Mississippian complex (see Ferguson 1971).

The South Appalachian Mississippian Period (ca. A.D. 1100 to 1640) is the most elaborate level of culture attained by the native inhabitants and is followed by cultural disintegration brought about largely by European disease. The period is characterized by complicated stamped pottery, complex social organization, agriculture, and the construction of temple mounds and ceremonial centers. The earliest phases include the Savannah and Pee Dee (A.D. 1200 to 1550).

Historic Overview

While the English settled Charleston in 1670, the northern frontier was ignored, except for Indian trade, until 1731, when the first Royal Governor of Carolina, Robert Johnson, directed 11 townships be laid out on the banks of various rivers, including one on the Black River. The settling of Georgetown (with its port of entry), however, greatly assisted in the population of the Williamsburg area. By 1734, the Carolina frontier was being divided into parishes, with the Williamsburg vicinity becoming part of Prince Frederick's Parish (Boddie 1923:9). Prior to that the area was primarily settled by Scotch-Irish, although much of the land was aquired by large planters speculating on the value of the newly opened land.

By 1737 surveys in the region had about ceased as there seemed to be no additional land suitable for cultivation remaining in the township and the population held steady at about 500 individuals (Wallace 1951:151). Boddie notes that John Witherspoon was one of the first settlers in the Boggy Swamp region, which is crossed by this survey. In addition, there were a number of English settling in the Black River area (Boddie 1923:30,33). The tenor of these early settlers was described by Boddie:

> The deepest desire of every one of the original settlers, who came to Williamsburg, was to be let along by everybody and by everything, from his nearest neighbor to the King of England (Boddie 1923:37).

Initially the settlement was built on subsistence farming, with a focus on corn when wheat proved unsatisfactory. Coupled with this was cattle grazing, which required little capital investment, but a reasonably good return (Boddie 1923:40). As was the case in other frontier areas, indigo was eventually found to be more profitable than herding (Starr 1983), although the two were not mutually exclusive. As Boddie observes, "cattle made Williamsburg substantial; indigo made it rich" (Boddie 1923:90).

The indigo industry flourished in South Carolina because of its unusual advantages – an indirect bounty, a protective tariff, and a monopoly on the British market during the various wars which cut off access to the better Spanish and French indigo supplies (Sharrer 1971). Carolina indigo was typically of middling or poor quality, yet it brought high prices since nothing else was available. When it had to compete with other sources, its price fell – thus the Carolina love affair with indigo ran hot and cold. Nevertheless, it provided a cash crop that required only modest numbers of slaves – and was embraced by the Williamsburg farmers. Although accounts are not clear, it seems that by the end of the first half of the eighteenth century slavery was well established, even if most families owned five or fewer African Americans (Boddie 1923:87).

Prior to the American Revolution Boddie would have us believe that Williamsburg was idyllic:

> Its doors were never locked and its windows were never barred. Its cornfields produced abundantly and its meadows were overflowing with cattle. Indigo ran riot so that cleared acres could not contain it. Tobacco and flax flourished wherever their seeds were sown. Roses bloomed and geraniums grew about the doorways. Morning suns came fresh out of the sea and evening showers brought peace to the troubled sands (Boddie 1923:94).

And the sands were, indeed, troubled. While Williamsburg may have been on the periphery of the economic and social turmoil, revolution was brewing. By December 1779, when Henry Clinton led an expeditionary force from New York to occupy Charleston, the war shifted from the Northern colonies to the South. In 1780 a 300 man battalion was raised in the area by Colonial John James and command was later assumed by General Francis Marion (Boddie 1923:98).

Williamsburg was the scene of an early British campaign as Lt. Colonel Banastre Tarleton sent troops through the area, "to punish the inhabitants in that quarter for their late breaches of parole and perfidious revolt" (Boddie 1923:101). What Tarleton did not accomplish, Major Wemyess attempted when he crossed the Black River in August 1780 continuing to Kingstree, laying waste to the countryside. He was met by Colonel James and after a short skirmish Wemyess turned toward Georgetown, passing through and burning much of Indiantown (Boddie 1923:104). Only a month later Marion

and his troops attached the British at their outpost on the Black Mingo, routing them and ending the British efforts to establish a chain of forts through the region (Boddie 1923:105-106).

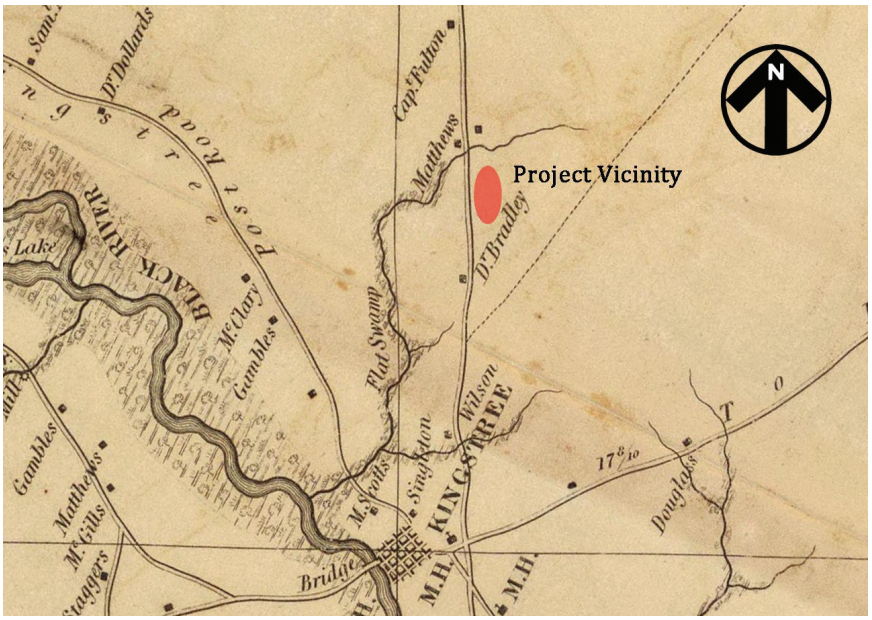

Figure 8. Portion of Mills' *Atlas* showing the project area in 1826.

After the American Revolution Williamsburg, like may other areas of South Carolina, lost the revenue of indigo. The once numerous herds cattle had been depleted by either Wigs or Tories. Boddie (1923:134) remarks that some cotton was grown, primarily along the Santee, rice was being tried in the Big Dam Swamp, and that some tobacco was planted. But neither could quickly, or effectively, replace the reliance on indigo. by 1788 there were only five buildings in all of Kingstree (Boddie 1923:138).

By the 1790 federal census Williamsburg, which was part of Georgetown District, had a population of about 3372 whites (39.2% of the population) and 5228 African American slaves (60.8% of the population), indicating that slavery by this point was firmly entrenched in the area. Moreover, while only about 53% of the families possessed slaves, the average holding was nearly 14 (Boddie 1923:154-170).

By 1820 Mills commented that cotton was the principal cash crop, although corn, potatoes and peas were also being grown in the district. The slave population had grown to only 5,864, although they accounted for 67.3% of the total population (Mills 1972[1826]:767). The project area, however, was still shown largely empty by Mills (Figure 8) and most settlements were found along the sparse road system of the area. The 1830 census reveals that Williamsburg was still a very rural area. There were only a handful of distilleries or sawmills and the most common industry was blacksmiths, with 22 reporting from the district.

By 1850 slaves accounted for over 68% of the population and the white population had grown by only about 600 people since 1790. In terms of agricultural production Williamsburg reveals a very modest economy. There were only 454 farms, possessing 70,360 improved acres. Only Kershaw District had fewer farms and the improved acres represented only 14% of the total farm acreage. However, the average farm size was only 1107 acres compared to nearby Horry District where the farms had a similar proportion of improved acres, but were more numerous and smaller (about 693 acres). Williamsburg produced only 100 pounds of tobacco, with the great bulk being produced by up country planters. There were only 4,298 bales of cotton produced, ranking the district 23rd (out of 29) in cotton production. It ranked 16th in the production of peas and beans and 11th in production of sweet potatoes – reflecting the continuing importance of subsistence crops in the area's economy.

In 1856 the Northeast Railway was built

from Charleston northward through Williamsburg, opening the Charleston markets as they never had been before. Cotton production increased to 6,571 bales – 50% more than 10 years previously. Sweet potato production also increased, with Williamsburg ranked 9th in the state, while the area also increased its rank in rice production from 10th to 7th. McGill also observed that:

> the railroad advantages were so apparent, perhaps more so in the purchase of plantation implements, which eventually shut off many wood and blacksmith ship, once considered a necessity in every neighborhood . . . . Great quantities of beef cattle were shipped down to Charleston, to the great relief of cattle owners, who when driving them down generally lost a few in the Santee Swamp (McGill 1952:272).

The railroad had two other effects. First, trade with nearby Georgetown declined as farmers abandoned it in favor of Charleston. And second, the easy access brought in the turpentine industry, largely from North Carolina. Both Boddie (1923:327) and McGill (1952:266) comment on the industry.

The Civil War did not immediately, or directly, affect Williamsburg. Boddie does note that early in the war a number of slaves were sent to the McClellanville shores to produce salt for Williamsburg County (Boddie 1923:372), but otherwise the war effort consisted of planting subsistence crops.

By May 1865, the citizens of the region requested that Union troops from Georgetown be sent to Williamsburg to keep order and the region came under military rule. Reconstruction had begun. With it so, too, had begun efforts by white South Carolinians to force African Americans back into something approaching bondage, known as the "Black Codes."

In 1865, the South Carolina legislature passed three laws. The first recognized that slavery no longer existed, but placed stringent economic and social restrictions on former slaves. The second law prohibited black farmers from selling anything without "written permission of the employer or District judge." It prohibited the ownership of weapons, and it allowed any white person to arrest any "person of color" for any misdemeanor. The third law instituted a "sunrise to sunset" workday, placed restrictions on movement, and provided liberal justifications for employee dismissal. In addition, the law stipulated that blacks could only be farm laborers or hired servants, unless they purchased an expensive license from the district court. This in effect closed the door on black economic opportunity. Farm laborers were docked pay for leaving the plantation without permission, damaging the owner's property, showing laziness, and even for being sick. Visitors were not allowed without permission, laborers had to work six days a week, and conversations were often not permitted during work. Workers' children could be removed to other plantations and African Americans could still be beaten for their supposed transgressions. In many parts of the state a pass system similar to slavery was again instituted.

By 1880 the South Carolina legislature had even further limited black economic opportunities, made oral contracts binding, favored white planters in all disputes, and made the breach of contract a criminal offense equivalent to fraud. Another law allowed plantation owners to hold laborers on the plantation who owed them money.

The "Red Shirt Campaign" by Wade Hampton in 1876 was designed to further erode the few freedoms still held by African Americans. A campaign document directs, in part: "In speeches to negroes you must remember that argument has no effect upon them: they can only be influenced by their fears, superstition and cupidity. Do not attempt to flatter and persuade them . . . . Treat them so as to show them you are the superior race, and that their natural position is that of subordination to the white man."

As elsewhere in South Carolina, Williamsburg's economy was in shambles. Planters in many areas attempted to quickly return to cotton in the hopes of restoring some semblance of wealth and prosperity, but frequently found that the freedmen were little interested in returning to cotton. In the Williamsburg area, it seems that while cotton was important, so too was turpentine. In fact, by the 1880s, one source remarked:

> There is one great evil this country has to contend with, and which accounts for the low price of land, and that is the deposition of the mass of landowners to neglect their farms and to devote all their time and labor to cutting timber and crossties and working turpentine (Anonymous 1884:np).

In fact, there were 16 saw mills in Williamsburg County producing $298,815 a year, and 26 turpentine stills producing $420,000 a year. Nevertheless, there were also 1,075 farms in the county. Those owned and operated by whites averaged about 47 acres in size. Those owned by African Americans averaged only 11.7 acres.

By 1900, the number of farms owned and operated by whites had nearly doubled and their acreage had increased to over 95 acres. In that year cotton production was 18,428 bales, ranking Williamsburg 21st out of 40 counties. But Williamsburg ranked sixth in tobacco production, with a yield of 904,330 pounds. While cotton and tobacco accounted for 30.7% and 0.9% of the improved farm acreage respectively, corn was being planted on 48,919 acres, or 36.6% of the improved land in Williamsburg, suggesting that subsistence farming was still vital to the county's economic base.

By 1910, cotton had grown to cover 41.9% of the improved acreage in Williamsburg County, and there were no fewer than 56 gins (Watson 1916:78). In contrast, tobacco had grown to cover 2.5% of the area's acreage. In contrast, corn acreage fell to 30.6%. The power of cotton, however, was soon broken by the boll weevil and, in 1930, cotton accounted for only 28.9% of the acreage, while tobacco increased to 10.5% of the available acreage. Improved acres themselves had declined from 156,000 acres in 1910 to only 119,350 acres in 1930.

During the Great Depression Williamsburg County began to change. As one account observed:

> many Northerners bought or leased homes in the country; it was a common sight for the Atlantic Coast Line trains to stop in Kingstee and from their pullmans would disembark the wealthy, the powerful, and even national leaders (Anonymous 1976:6).

Many of the once productive plantations were converted into hunting lodges, while others were left to decay.

By 1940, Williamsburg County had drastically curtailed cotton production, and 54.5% of the improved acreage was planted in corn. This echoes the comment of one individual in the Trio area who remarked that one year their gin was worth $100,000 while a year later, with almost no one planting cotton, it wasn't worth a dollar (Pearl Rowell, personal communication 2000).

It was also during this period that another change became more pronounced. In 1944 74% of Williamsburg County consisted of forests, with about equal amounts of sweet gum in the lowland areas and planted loblolly pines in the upland areas (Penney 1945:21). These pines represented the new crop – timber.

Of course timber was not really a new crop – as implied by the 1884 account of the county, it had been competing with cotton for years. By at least 1875 The Georgetown and Western had opened a line from Georgetown to tie into the

Atlantic Coast Line which ran across the Santee River into Kingstree. Along The Georgetown and Western line W.D. Bryan, W.R. Bryan, and James Bryan established the post office of Trio, east of the corridor, in 1883. An intricate network of rail lines were established to open swamps for timbering and by 1910 the G&W had 36 miles of main line and 60 miles of branches – all leading to the vast timber port of Georgetown (Fetters 1990:45-54).

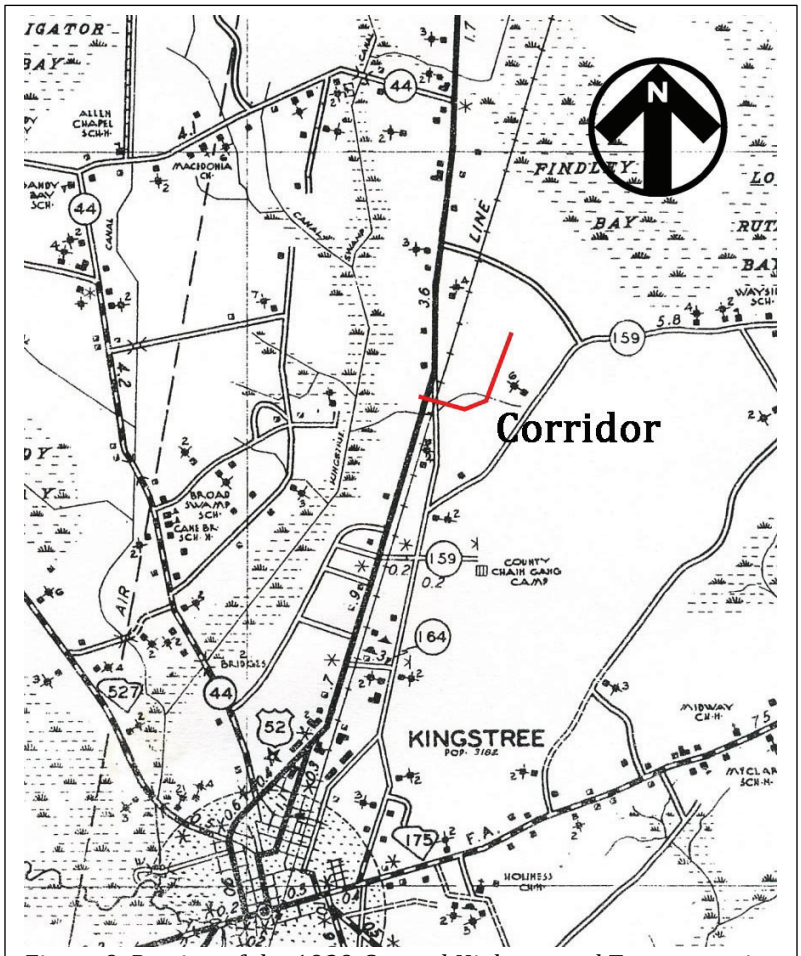

Figure 9. Portion of the 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map* showing the project area.

The 1939 *General Highway and Transportation Map* for the project area (Figure 9) illustrates little development in the project area. Settlements are still focused on the road network. Although the project corridor runs in close proximity to several farms and associated tenant houses, much of the line is situated in areas that were probably wooded, swampy, and of little economic importance.

Methodology and Results

Archaeological Field Methods

The initially proposed field techniques involved the placement of shovel tests at 100-foot intervals on transects every 100 feet across the substation lot and along the center-line of the transmission corridor.

All soil would be screened through ¼-inch mesh, with each test numbered sequentially along the corridor. Each test would measure about 1-foot square and would normally be taken to a depth of at least 1.0 foot or until subsoil was encountered. All cultural remains would be collected, except for mortar and brick, which would be quantitatively noted in the field and discarded. Notes would be maintained for profiles at any sites encountered.

Should sites (defined by the presence of three or more artifacts from either surface survey or shovel tests within a 50 feet area) be identified, further tests would be used to obtain data on site boundaries, artifact quantity and diversity, site integrity, and temporal affiliation. For small or very recent sites these tests would be placed at 25 to 50 feet intervals in a simple cruciform pattern until two consecutive negative shovel tests were encountered. For larger sites or sites where we felt there was a potential for National Register eligibility, shovel tests would incorporate the entire site within the project corridor. Again, shovel tests would be placed at 25 to 50 foot intervals. We are precluded from examining areas outside the corridor by the easements obtained by Central Carolina Power Cooperative.

The information required for completion of South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology site forms would be collected and photographs would be taken, if warranted in the opinion of the field investigator.

The GPS positions would be taken with a WAAS enabled Garmin 76 rover that tracks up to twelve satellites, each with a separate channel that is continuously being read. The benefit of parallel channel receivers is their improved sensitivity and ability to obtain and hold a satellite lock in difficult situations, such as in forests or urban environments where signal obstruction is a frequent problem. This was a vital concern for the study area.

Architectural Survey

As previously discussed, we elected to use a 100-foot area of potential effect (APE). The architectural survey would record buildings, sites, structures, and objects that appeared to have been constructed before 1960. Typical of such projects, this survey recorded only those which have retained "some measure of its historic integrity" (Vivian 2001:5) and which were visible from public roads.

For each identified resource we would complete a Statewide Survey Site Form and at least two representative photographs were taken. The Survey Staff of the S.C. Department of Archives and History would assign permanent control numbers at the conclusion of the study. The Site Forms for the resources identified during this study would be submitted to the S.C. Department of Archives and History.

Site Evaluation

Archaeological sites will be evaluated for

further work based on the eligibility criteria for the National Register of Historic Places. Chicora Foundation only provides an opinion of National Register eligibility and the final determination is made by the lead federal agency, in consultation with the State Historic Preservation Officer at the South Carolina Department of Archives and History.

The criteria for eligibility to the National Register of Historic Places are described by 36CFR60.4, which states:

> the quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering, and culture is present in districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and
>
> a. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or
>
> b. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
>
> c. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or
>
> d. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

National Register Bulletin 36 (Townsend et al. 1993) provides an evaluative process that contains five steps for forming a clearly defined explicit rationale for either the site's eligibility or lack of eligibility. Briefly, these steps are:

- identification of the site's data sets or categories of archaeological information such as ceramics, lithics, and subsistence remains, architectural remains, or sub-surface features;

- identification of the historic context applicable to the site, providing a framework for the evaluative process;

- identification of the important research questions the site might be able to address, given the data sets and the context;

- evaluation of the site's archaeological integrity to ensure that the data sets were sufficiently well preserved to address the research questions; and

- identification of important research questions among all of those that might be asked and answered at the site.

This approach, of course, has been developed for use documenting eligibility of sites being actually nominated to the National Register of Historic Places where the evaluative process must stand alone, with relatively little reference to other documentation and where typically only one site is being considered. As a result, some aspects of the evaluative process have been summarized, but we have tried to focus on an archaeological site's ability to address significant research topics within the context of its available data sets.

For architectural sites the evaluative process was somewhat different. Given the relatively limited architectural data available for most of the properties, we focus on evaluating these sites using National Register Criterion C, looking at the site's "distinctive characteristics." Key to this concept is the issue of integrity. This means that the property needs to have retained,

essentially intact, its physical identity from the historic period.

Particular attention would be given to the integrity of design, workmanship, and materials. Design includes the organization of space, proportion, scale, technology, ornamentation, and materials. As *National Register Bulletin* 36 observes, "Recognizability of a property, or the ability of a property to convey its significance, depends largely upon the degree to which the design of the property is intact" (Townsend et al. 1993:18). Workmanship is evidence of the artisan's labor and skill and can apply to either the entire property or to specific features of the property. Finally, materials – the physical items used on and in the property – are "of paramount importance under Criterion C" (Townsend et al. 1993:19). Integrity here is reflected by maintenance of the original material and avoidance of replacement materials.

Laboratory Analysis

The cleaning and analysis of artifacts that might be collected would be conducted in Columbia at the Chicora Foundation laboratories. Any such materials will be catalogued and accessioned for curation at the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology, the closest regional repository. The site forms for the identified archaeological sites will be filed with the South Carolina Institute of Archaeology and Anthropology. Field notes from the project have been prepared for curation using archival standards and will be transferred to that agency as soon as the project is complete. Photographic materials are either digital and are not archival – they are being retained by Chicora Foundation.

Should materials be recovered requiring analysis that work will follow professionally accepted standard with a level of intensity suitable to the quantity and quality of the remains.

In general, the temporal, cultural, and typological classifications of prehistoric materials are defined by such authors as Coe (1964), Yohe (1996), Blanton et al. (1986), and Oliver et al. (1986). Historic materials, generally late nineteenth or early twentieth century, are generally classified using such authors as Jones and Sullivan (1980) for glass and Adams (1980), Bartovics (1978), and Price (1979) for ceramics.

Results

Confronted with field conditions, significant modifications were made in the proposed strategy. The most significant issue was that the majority of the corridor was not simply wet, but often exhibited standing water. Even where standing water was not present, shovel tests produced sloppy, impossible to screen soils with water collecting in the tests minutes after excavation. As a result, only 25 shovel tests were excavated and screened in the corridor and an additional 10 were excavated at the substation lot.

The archaeological survey of the parcel and associated corridor failed to identify any remains.

No standing structures not previously surveyed were identified.

Conclusions

This study involved the examination of a 2.2 acre substation lot and 4584 linear foot transmission corridor. This report, conducted for Mr. Tommy Jackson of Central Electric Power Cooperative, provides the results of the investigation and is intended to assist the company comply with their historic preservation responsibilities.

The South Carolina Department of Archives and History GIS was consulted to check for any NRHP buildings, districts, structures, sites, or objects in the study area. No properties in or near the project area have been determined eligible for the National Register of Historic Places. Likewise, previous archaeological studies failed to identify any cultural resources within the 100 foot APE.

The current field studies found no archaeological sites within the corridor.

No standing structures were identified by this survey. Moreover, the presence of a railroad track, existing power line, and industrial development have significantly affected the visual integrity of the project area.

It is possible that archaeological remains may be encountered in the area during construction. As always, the utility's contractors should be advised to report any discoveries of concentrations of artifacts (such as bottles, ceramics, or projectile points) or brick rubble to the project engineer, who should in turn report the material to the State Historic Preservation Office, or Chicora Foundation (the process of dealing with late discoveries is discussed in 36CFR800.13(b)(3)). No further land altering activities should take place in the vicinity of these discoveries until they have been examined by an archaeologist and, if necessary, have been processed according to 36CFR800.13(b)(3).

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